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ABSTRACT

The Latin American countries have an immense overall task in providing formal education for more than half the population and in coping with the accumulated deficits of the adult population who did not have access to formal education or who left it prematurely. Latin America's economic capacity to correct this situation is limited. Higher education enrollment is expected to increase more than elementary enrollment in the near future, and there is a perceptible trend toward increasing the number of dedicated full-time professors. Since 1918, educational reform in these countries has meant the struggle for power, and not necessarily for academic improvement. The relationship between the governments and the public universities has not been an easy one, and there is a marked trend toward laws to regulate higher education. There is also a trend toward interinstitutional cooperation, and institutional administration is being reshaped, especially in its financial aspects. Data tables are included. (Author/MSE)

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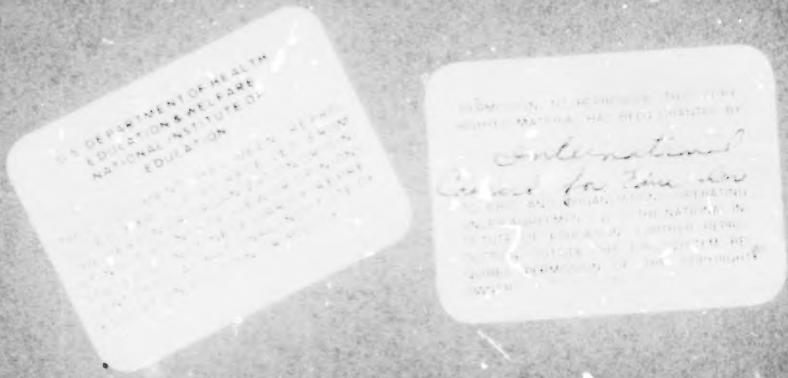
Higher Education in Latin America: Current and Future

Alfonso Ocampo Londoño



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FOREWORD

For two days this spring, March 30 and 31, a group of U. S. educators concerned with higher education in Latin America gathered in New York to discuss "Current Problems of Universities in Latin America." Those taking part in the discussions were many of the present and former U. S. members of the Council on Higher Education for the American Republics (CHEAR). Their hosts for the two-day seminar were the Center for Inter-American Relations, where discussions were held, the Institute of International Education, and the International Council for Educational Development (ICED).

The first speaker at the seminar was Dr. Alfonso Ocampo Londoño, Director of the Department of Educational Affairs for the Organization of American States. In publishing his remarks ICED seeks to share with readers throughout the world Dr. Ocampo's analysis of the formidable issues and opportunities which confront higher education in Latin America.

Dr. Ocampo, a former surgeon, served as Minister of Health and then as Minister of Education for Colombia. He was Rector of the University of Valle at Cali before joining the Organization of American States.

June 1973

Latin America is not a continent, nor is it an archipelago of identical countries, but a great variety of nations of unequal development, different customs, distinct governments, and various racial compositions, united only by an Iberian, Indian and Black ancestry that welds them together toward a common destiny of progress.

Consequently appropriate generalizations cannot be made about an unbalanced state of university development, without reviewing the history of the evolution of each country. Nevertheless, we may point to transformations which are similar in all and in which Iberian beginnings, European traditions, and the recent influence of the United States are intermingled. I shall attempt to highlight some of the common traits instead of the differences, which in many cases are outstanding, and to point out the unity within the diversity of patterns of behavior and of development. I shall do my best to be objective, but on some points, because of lack of data, I have to base my remarks on my own experience and on what I have seen and observed throughout many years of contact with higher education in Latin America.

DEMOGRAPHIC ASPECTS

In 1972, the population of Latin America and the Caribbean was around 285 million, with a 2.8% per year average growth rate fluctuating between 3.4% and 1.2%. The average annual birth index is 37 per thousand, and death rate, 11 per thousand. Projections based on these statistics indicate a

population of 435 million in 1985 and 640 million by the year 2000.

Many more than 50% are under 25 years of age and at least 42% under 15; actually 17 countries out of 22 fall into the latter category; a lower percentage of the under-15 age group is shown only by Argentina, Barbados, Chile, Haiti, and Uruguay (the three countries of the Southern Cone and two of the English-speaking Caribbean countries). (Table No 1).

These figures demonstrate the immense overall task before the Latin American countries in providing formal education for more than half of the population and in coping with the accumulated deficits of the adult population, who did not have access to formal education or who left it prematurely.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS

Latin America's economic capacity to correct this situation is limited. This is not because the region has not attained an acceptable rhythm of economic growth, for the rate has been high in recent years. From 1961 to 1970, the average production of services and goods grew at the rate of 5.5% with the noticeable improvement to 6.6% from 1968 to 1970. Nonetheless, the region's capacity is low in comparison to its accelerated population growth. The Gross National Product (GNP) was similar to that of industrialized countries, but in the latter the population increased at a rate of only 1.0% compared to 2.8% in Latin America. Thus the average GNP of the Latin American had an annual cumulative growth rate of 2.6% between 1960 and 1970, while the rate for the developed countries was 3.7%. This indicates that instead of closing, the gap between the developed and the developing countries is widening, not only economically but in the realization of their social potential. (Table No. 2).

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

In 1968, 55% of the school-age population (elementary and secondary) received formal schooling in Latin America compared to 96% in the United States. In spite of this, in 1970 enrollment in Latin America exceeded 50 million.

It is important to observe that enrollment in the elementary grades (including the pre-primary) increased from 1960 to 1970 at an average rate of 5%; secondary, 11.4% and higher, 9.7%. (Tables No. 3 and 4).

While elementary enrollment showed a large numerical increase, the percent of increase of the secondary and higher levels was greater. When we analyze this development, we see that there was an enormous increase in elementary enrollment before 1965 (beginning even before 1960), which contributed to the growth in secondary enrollment, and by the end of the decade 1960-1970 at the higher level.

If this growth is projected, an even greater increase at the higher level can be observed, with a relative decrease at the elementary. (Table No. 5).

This situation, producing a variation in the percentages of growth and composition at the various levels, will also bring about an increase in the costs of education, because of the greater costs at the secondary and higher levels.

TEACHERS

If statistical data on education in most of the countries are not exact, in general, there is even less information about teachers. In any case one can say that the quality of teachers—especially of their education—leaves much to be

desired. In most of the countries, elementary and even secondary school teachers have received only normal school education, which is merely secondary schooling with emphasis on teaching. There is an increasing number of university graduates serving at the secondary level. At the higher level, the great majority of teachers have university degrees or have graduated without a given specialization; most are part-time professors, combining their teaching with the practice of a profession or with classes in other educational institutions. Nevertheless, there is now a perceptible trend in education in general, but most particularly at the higher level, to increase the number of dedicated full-time professors.

The growth rate of elementary teachers in the decade 1960-1970 was 5.6%. It was greater from 1960 to 1965 (7%) than from 1965 to 1970 (4.3%). At the secondary level, it was 9.2% with a higher rate from 1960 to 1965 (10.9%) than from 1965 to 1970 (8.4%). The same pattern held for higher education with a rate of 7.9% with a growth rate higher than either of the other levels. At this level there was an increase of 9.8% from 1960 to 1965 and 5.9% from 1965 to 1970. (Table No. 6). This rapid growth frequently necessitated the appointment of teachers without proper qualifications or led to an increase in the number of students per teacher. In either case the results were detrimental to education.

HIGHER EDUCATION

a) Increased Enrollments

All statistics clearly show a remarkable increase in enrollment in Latin American higher education. During the first five years of the 1960-70 decade it was greater than 10% per annum in 11 countries; but in the second half, in only 7. This coincides with the greatest relative growth of the

countries. (Tables No. 7 and 8). There is undoubtedly a marked increase as indicated in the figures below:

	1955-60	1960-65	1965-70
Enrollment in higher education, per 1,000 population	2.6	3.6	5.2
Index	100	153	268
Rate of growth	5.5	9.7	11.1

This shows that in 1955, there were 2.6 university students per 1,000 population; in 1970, 5.2 and expectations are that there will be 13.0 in 1980, and 23.0 in 1990.

In a good number of the countries, there is a tendency to open the university to the greatest number of students possible and to abolish all obstacles, especially entrance examinations; even though admission in the majority of the Latin American universities is limited, and some type of selective testing is employed, no definite pattern is being followed. Liberalizing admission policy has resulted from student and political pressure, in the belief that this will bring about greater democratization or increase of opportunities. Many times what actually occurs is over-enrollment in the first years since the institution is not duly prepared for such numbers. This only postpones selection for one or two years, at a much higher cost to society. Possibly the time for true democratization of education must be prior to the university level, when equal facilities should be provided for all who want to study, without social or economic class discrimination.

The opposite of a selective university, which concentrates on a few specializations, is the true *open university* democratically offering many fields and levels. The open university, unlike the new type of English institution, offers free admission that fills its halls with students. This provides a quantitative solution but presents serious problems that need to be solved.

It also should be noted that in a good many of the countries students are not full-time, but work as well as study. For example at the Universidad de San Carlos de Guatemala this is so for 50% of the students; at the University of Guayaquil (Ecuador), 45.5%; in the Catholic and Central Universities of Ecuador, 31.7%; in Bolivia, 30%.

b) Comparative Enrollment Figures

In spite of this notable growth, a comparison of the number of students in higher education (per thousand population in Latin America) with those in the United States and Europe, shows that university enrollment in Latin America is still much lower. For example, while Argentina has 11 university students per 1,000 population; Chile, 8; Peru, 7; Uruguay, 6; and Venezuela, 6; Canada has 22; the United States, 35; Denmark, 12; France, 12; Italy and The Netherlands, 7; Spain, 5; Sweden, 12.5; Yugoslavia, 11; and the Soviet Union, 18.

c) Trend Toward Specialization

There is a growing trend in higher education toward specializations requiring less than four years for completion. Unfortunately, there is not yet a very close correlation between human resource needs and these specializations, in spite of the belief that they were set up in response to

market demand, for the opportunities are quickly exhausted and an oversupply results.

There are no very reliable data on this, but it may be said that true university specialization of four or more years was 46% in 1960, 41% in 1965, and 38% in 1970. This indicates that a growing percentage of the total number of university formal degree programs is below the baccalaureate level and that such programs have definitely become grafted to the higher education level. (Table No. 9).

d) Public and Private Higher Education

Although both public and private higher education have grown, (in Costa Rica, for example, all the demand for higher education is met by the public institution), the index for the private sector is high in some countries, such as Colombia with 46%, Brazil with 45% and Nicaragua with 49%. There is a marked trend toward the increase of enrollment in private institutions of higher education. Later I shall deal with the reasons for this growth. In 1960, there was only 11% in the private sector, whereas in 1970 there was 23%, which shows that the proportional number has more than doubled. (Table No. 10). It should be observed that in many countries the government subsidizes the private schools in recognition of their contribution to national education.

e) Enrollment by Groups of Specializations

It is interesting to observe that the humanities, philosophy, languages and the like, taken as a group, instead of showing a decrease in enrollment, have increased from 9.8% in 1960 to 13.4%

in 1970. The field of education has shown the greatest rate of increase, 6.7% to 13.4%. The social sciences, currently the group of specializations with the largest enrollment, have grown from 13.4% to 18.6%. The physical and natural sciences have increased slightly from 3.2% to 3.8%, engineering from 14.4% to 14.7%, and agriculture and related fields from 2.6% to 3.9%. A decrease has been noted from 1960 to 1970 in fine arts and architecture, from 6.1% to 5.1%; law from 16.8% to 13.1%; and in medical seiences, from 20.5% to 13.2%. From the above, it can be seen that the great demand for education has produced a notable increase in training for that profession. Possibly the socialization of medicine, the plethora of doctors in the large cities, together with the long and difficult program of study (which does not bring with it a high average income), has diminished interest in medicine as a profession. Unfortunately, no significant increase in the fields of science and engineering is evident, which is a serious detriment to scientific and technological development in Latin America. Only in the field of agriculture is there a significant increase. (Table No. 11).

f) University Levels

Only the first professional degree is offered in the majority of the universities. Some institutions have already initiated graduate study, however. Development of the advanced levels of study is vital for true progress and for the true intellectual, scientific, and technical independence of the Latin American countries. In many countries, these efforts have been made without taking into account the total human resources needed, but undoubtedly the situation has been improving

slowly but steadily in several of the countries. Unfortunately, we do not have the statistical data to demonstrate the current importance of graduate study. There will be an increasing trend in this direction in the future, due to its importance for the region and for each country. This is where I believe that the greatest cooperation and assistance are needed for Latin American countries.

g) Research

Effort at the graduate level is closely linked to stimulus for research. Without belittling outstanding examples of many institutions and professors, it must be admitted that research in Latin American universities is limited but of relatively high quality. Unfortunately, the great demand for theoretical instruction for great numbers of students, the part-time service of many professors, the low remuneration received; the less than attractive, difficult, and insecure academic career have caused research to seek locales other than the universities. The institutes that have been set up have primarily two purposes: the practice of a profession and/or the conduct of research, without the concomitant activity of the education of enough young university students who need the influence of research to enable them to obtain a real education.

FINANCING HIGHER EDUCATION

Public expenditure for education in Latin America is estimated at 3.6% of the GNP, an increase over 1960 when the figure was only 2.1%. (Table No. 15).

In 1970, seven countries spent more than 4% of the GNP

on education, six countries between 3% and 4% and only one country, less than 2%. (Table No. 15).

It is estimated that within the next 25 years this proportion will reach an average of 6.5%, with the most noticeable increase occurring during the first 10 years, so that by 1980-85 it will be 8.6% and thereafter decrease to 4.9%. (Table No. 12).

The Inter-American Development Bank estimated that in 1970 the region invested 4,787 million dollars in education. Projections of this figure show that public expenditures in education will be the following, in U. S. million dollars: (Table No. 13).

1970	4,787	1985	15,830
1975	7,030	1995	26,820
1980	10,495	2000	34,105

As stated above, a distribution among the several levels varies. At present, 51.7% is shown for the elementary level, 27.2%, for the secondary, and 21.1%, for the higher (Table No. 14). This distribution, if the current trends remain constant, implies that by 1985 expenditures for the secondary level will be 36.5% of the total for education, and for the higher level, 30%; and that by the end of the century, the latter will be 44%. It is, then, "precisely at this higher level where there is the greatest need to mobilize additional resources for financing education."[1]

Based on the above, the estimates of funds, in U. S. million dollars, required for higher education are:

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[1] A. Ortiz Mena, President, Inter-American Development Bank, 1973.

1970	1,010	1990	6,990
1975	1,695	1995	10,315
1980	2,840	2000	15,140
1985	4,725		

(See Tables No. 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 for additional data.)

These round figures show the present and future situation on a large scale and make us give thought to potential crises in the system if the necessary resources are not mobilized, crises that will become more serious in those countries that have a higher population growth rate. It is necessary to provide in advance everything required to meet this increase in demand, since buildings, equipment, and especially professors, who not only consume the largest proportion of the costs but whose preparation takes the longest, cannot be supplied on short notice.

UNIVERSITY REFORM AND LAWS

Since 1918, the year of the celebrated Reform of Córdoba, the majority of university student movements have been on behalf of various of its postulates, which, in one way or another, wholly or in part, have been the basis of the petitions or demands of the student leaders or their followers.

The Reform contained basically four demands: (1) university autonomy, a kind of extraterritorial privilege and absolute freedom for its direction, as well as for the participation of students in political movements; (2) voluntary class attendance to enable those who work to study; (3) the right of the students to veto professors who had obtained their positions through family, economic, or political influence; later this was generalized to include those who did not teach well or whom the students did not like for one reason or another, or who had conflicting ideas; (4) the right to participate in university government, or so-called "co-government."

During the initial stages of the reform, Argentine students obtained one-third of the membership of the principal university council. This became the goal of subsequent student movements.

From this time on in Latin America, reform has meant a struggle for power, not exactly for academic and administrative betterment or improvement, since the concept of co-government does not necessarily carry with it that of participation (that already exists in the majority of the public universities), but rather the desire to govern and to impose opinions, which on many occasions are not those of the majority of the students but those of the leaders.

The majority of university laws, whether through conviction or through fear, provide a place for the student body, with more or less power. Under the most recent Peruvian law, the University Assembly, the supreme organ of the university system, is made up of two-thirds of university authorities and professors, one-third of students, and, a new element, two representatives of the university employees. This initiates their participation in university governance and probably the struggle for power.

In Venezuela, the National University Council, which is headed by the Minister of Education, comprises three student representatives in addition to the university presidents, and representatives of the professors and of the National Council for Scientific and Technological Research. On the University Council (of each university) there are also three student representativies, but this proportion has been the source of protests.

The university government in Chile is composed of 65% academicians, 10% non-academic personnel, and 25% students.

In Argentina, student representation has been suspended since 1966, but the law proposed by the present government provides for a student delegation to the Assembly, the Superior Council, and the Academic Council.

In Colombia, there is an average of two student representatives on the Superior Councils, but none on the Council of Directors of the Decentralized Institute (Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior), which is headed by the Minister, although the President of the Republic, who appoints two representatives to it, initially included one student.

In Brazil, there are no student representatives on the Federal Council on Education or on the university councils.

The only university in Costa Rica has a University Assembly as its supreme organ. It has approximately 700 members, 10% of whom are student representatives. As for the University Council, two out of a total of 17 members are students, and the project under study proposes 2 out of 11. The Minister of Education is a member of the University Council.

The new university law of Bolivia established a National Council on Higher Education and a University Council for each university. The students are not represented on the National Council but each University Council includes one student representative from each facultad.

POLITICS AND THE UNIVERSITY

There are variations in the relationship between the national governments and the universities. In theory, all governments respect university autonomy, but, logically, they do not

accept the extra-territoriality of the universities even though they avoid as much as possible penetrating the university precincts; on numerous occasions this had led to serious incidents, although it was the serious nature of the student eruptions that brought about the intervention.

The students, supported by some professors, have frequently been the principal elements of public disturbances and one of the strongest, if not the strongest, source of opposition to the government of their own country. The student body as well as some of the teachers are highly politicized under leadership with a pronounced leaning toward the extreme left, under the banner of social reform and of the mission of the university as a critical and revolutionary body. The President of Chile, Salvador Allende, in referring to the new spirit of the University of Chile, said that the students "were in the fore-front of the restlessness of the masses. They have an awareness that there cannot be amorphous universities; universities on the fringe of the social process must be, and will be, universities politically committed to the problems of the people and the structural changes demanded by the people."[2]

In an article entitled "University and Revolution," Darcy Ribeiro says that " . . . the student revolt that is with us, has its deepest motivation today in the perception of the retrogade character of the dominant classes of their own societies, which have failed historically in the task of leading them toward development, because they were always compromised with the principal factors of reaction. . . . " After speaking of the modernization of the university as a new factor of dependence he adds that "it would perhaps be the most disastrous solution because it would permit our

[2] Santiago Vidal Muñoz, "La Reforma Educativa en Chile," *Perspectivas de la UNESCO*, no. 609, octubre 1971, p. 16.

societies to attain greater efficiency in the use of new equipment to fulfill our traditional role of spurious cultures and of backward societies compromised of dependent economies, . . . This means that it behooves us to struggle for the structural renovation of the university because only thus will we be able to influence it to serve the revolution more favorably."[3]

Fernando Ortĭz, a communistic Chilean university leader, says, "We are not afraid to confess that our proposal is to induce the universities to involve themselves in the Chilean revolutionary process. Let no one be deceived. The class struggle is expressed in the university, and all the members of the university community adopt a militant attitude toward the construction of socialism in Chile. It is false to think that you can be apolitical in a university."[4]

There is no doubt that there is a proposal to conquer the university for a certain type of ideology that utilizes democratic methods as a revolutionary instrument with the firm idea that whoever wins the university wins the country. The struggle for power is the fundamental task, an almost mystic warfare, with the stimulus that the other side is disunited and has no heart for the struggle.

In general, Latin American university students and some professors are opposed to short-term government. Their ideas change as they progress in their studies and analyze their participation. Because of this, the trend to study in private universities has increased noticeably; where they are more protected against political activities, they can continue and,

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[3] Darcy Ribeiro, "Universidad y Revolución," *Universidades*, año 21, no. 44, abril-junio 1971, pp. 11-21.

[4] Thomas MacHale, "Ideologías de la Reforma Universitaria: Visión Crítica de Chile." Ediciones Portada, 1972, pp. 271-295.

as a rule, complete their studies with a reasonable degree of tranquility. Those who would like to attend private universities, but do not do so because of financial difficulties, stay on the fringe of movements but do not oppose them.

It can be said that possibly the majority of students, and not a few professors, do not follow the course of the traditional political parties, whether they are on the right, left, or center, and do not have an ingrained awareness of the urgent necessity of bettering their country. They are disillusioned with the political parties that formerly tried to subdue them, and even yet do so, but have not fulfilled their promise to bring about the country's rapid progress. When the students, whether they are Marxist, socialist, conservative, liberal, or any other denomination, become affiliated with a party, they do not follow its discipline and frequently do not conform to the ideology that they say they profess.

In my opinion, the Latin American student is disoriented among the different political opinions, none of which satisfies him fully, but he is discontented with the present situation of his country and, consequently, takes different stands according to the facts and theories that are presented to him. He is also tired of being courted by all the factions; he does not believe in any of them and cannot see which is the true one to lead his country to accelerated development. He wants to construct a theory and a practical approach, but he does not and is left in simple protest or indifference, most frequently without struggling and without opposing those who are more radical or committed to an ideology they seek to establish.

Many of us have proclaimed the thesis that the universities cannot become involved in political struggle but that they should offer opportunities for the study of the various political and social trends from the academic point of view and that there should be no political proselytizing on the part

of their professors or students. Up to now it would not appear that we have had much success, but the impression is given that the political weariness of the students can cause them in the future to turn to the apolitical university, or at least to one that is not politically committed, in order to have sufficient tranquility and time to study.

On the other hand, many governments tend to prohibit political manifestations in the university; but this is understood as the elimination of the opposition, and in most cases incites the students. Then the governments have to use force to repress the "rebellion."

It is the student himself and the professors who must arrive at the concept of no political involvement, of dedication to study, and of not serving as a revolutionary instrument but as the molder of men who will achieve progress in all orders: political, social, economic, spiritual, and material. Herein lies true autonomy, which must be defended, but up to now the most flagrant violation of these postulates has been within the halls of the universities. Everything seems to indicate that there is already a tendency in this direction.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE UNIVERSITIES

Relationships between public universities and the government, as has been pointed out, have not been easy; to the contrary, in many countries there has been a constant state of tension. Contributing to this situation are a strict concept of university autonomy, the non-acceptance of any intervention whatsoever on the one hand and on the other the governments not tolerating disturbances, changes in the status quo, or permitting the existence of one state within the other which is its responsiblity to govern.

Consequently there is a marked trend toward laws to regulate higher education, the majority creating a National

Council, Institute, or Assembly of differing composition. As a rule the government is represented by the Minister of Education or his delegates; there may or may not be student representation. In the large majority of cases such measures are not repressive, but are intended to enable the university to follow the course of a national policy of educational development for the university, the most important of the educational levels.

There is a very deep conviction that the university should follow and shape itself to a definite educational policy: development of the human resources required by the country. To this end it should participate not only in the direction of the planning but also in its fulfillment. "The university cannot separate itself from the other levels which in many ways determine its own. The educational system is a unit in that everything is in everything, and all the faults and shortcomings of any grade of education is reflected in the others. The university should now accept its close interdependence with the rest of the school system and assume its function of intellectual tutelage in relation to the capital problems of education in each country."

"The purpose of inter-linking the institutions of higher education with national development plans may require a revision of the concept of university autonomy, which in some cases has contributed to a certain isolation of the university from the true center of the educational development process."[5]

More and more universities will find themselves sought after or they themselves will need a plan to improve the utilization of their resources and to be able to formulate a

[5] Rene Maheu, "La Cooperacion Internacional y el Desarrollo de la Educación Superior en América Latina," IDB, 1965, pp. 105-119.

task of national or regional significance. They must prepare the personnel needed and create a structure that will allow progress—spiritual and material, as well as humanistic and scientific. This will make each university the master of its own destiny and truly independent in every sense.

UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATIONS

There is an evident trend on the part of the universities to become associated, not only to defend their autonomy but to collaborate toward mutual development. They have become convinced that separately they cannot fulfill their mission and that they need one another. For instance, many institutions have already united to share their professors, their buildings, laboratories, libraries.

There are already many associations, some of public universities, others of private, and still others mixed, such as in the case of Colombia (Colombian Association of Universities) and even of Latin America as a whole (Union of Latin American Universities). Several laws in force not only recognize these associations but have created special councils for private or public universities, or a combination of both.

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

To deal even briefly with this subject, we must separate it into two aspects, the academic and the financial, or more properly stated, business.

Academic Aspect

The academic aspect has been the most important point of university management up to now and will continue to be, but it is constantly becoming more closely united with other aspects of administrative control. Previously, the rector

managed only this aspect and left the other aspects to a *Síndico* or other administrative officer. It was not possible to do more since, as a general rule, the rector served only part-time and, consequently, was not able to give due attention to other matters.

It has already become general, although unfortunately not yet universal, for the rector to devote all of his efforts exclusively to his educational as well as the administrative duties, but he needs more competent personnel to enable him to discharge both efficiently.

Today many of the Latin American universities are appointing rectors, academic deans, or deans of students on a full-time basis. Another development is the grouping of related subjects into departments, and these into institutes, centers, or divisions to avoid unnecessary duplication. Academic registrars have begun to shift to the credit or point system. A more flexible school calendar of semesters or quarters, instead of a whole academic year and academic use of vacation periods, are becoming evident. There is also a tendency to shorten some degree programs, to include others of intermediate nature, and to organize graduate schools with the essential components of research and directed study. Many changes have been effected, many of them original and many others adapted or adopted (as the case may be) from other regions of the world, including the United States.

It can almost be said that the Latin American university of today, since the decade of the 60s, has changed its physiognomy and would not be recognized from the initial traditional institution it was. Latin America actually has universities that can serve as models not only for the region but for the world. It would be worthwhile to study some of them.

One aspect that has permeated the entire university scene is that of contact and cooperation with the community. Although the community's influence on the governing bodies is rejected, there is a desire to work and to carry out a social function. Often this remains verbal only, but at other times there are results of major significance. This concept has been growing slowly, and I am certain that in this decade many examples of advances worthy of imitation will be presented.

Financial and Business Apsects

This is the field in which there has been substantial reform, although much remains to be done and improved. There is a greater awareness that in order to accomplish an academic task, economic resources are required. These must be properly managed almost in the same way that a well-organized business is run. The university is a large enterprise; its goal is not financial gain but rather to produce social benefit and to serve education.

Recognition of administrative personnel has resulted, and more and more they are being elevated to a status similar to that of the academician up to the rank of vice-rector or dean. Administrative services have also been elevated, and the organization of all accounting and auditing activities are being improved (unfortunately not as much as is desirable) but there is a fundamental change in traditional budgetary practices. Much still remains to be done in the field of cost accounting and statistics, but in general this also has improved.

Personnel administration has been modernized (even some computerized or mechanized accounting has been instituted) although the task continues to be great. The same thing can be said about all other aspects of administration.

I do not wish to leave the impression that extraordinary advances have been achieved in this field, but that there has

been a noteworthy change of attitude toward administration in itself and that the road has been opened. As in the case of educational planning this will result in noticeable repercussions in this decade.

CONCLUSION

There are still many aspects that should be covered, but I trust I have given an outline of the most important. I should like to add only a few more words to express my sincere optimism regarding the future of the Latin American university, its enormous potential and contribution to its countries, the region, and the world. We have had many problems; we face enormous problems. In that we are no different from the universities of the rest of the world. But if we review the past we can see that we have made considerable progess and that we shall continue to do so. Following the significant growth of elementary and secondary education, higher education is now the most important level to be developed and perfected. If that does not happen, there will be tremendous frustration and our countries will not emerge from their state of relative under development.

We cannot, nevertheless, believe that this development can be one of growth of economic indices only. This growth must be global and be comprised not only of material improvement but of spiritual, social, political, and above all, the human components.

"The primordial preoccupation of education does not refer to material aspects alone, but to the totality of existence, not so much as to how man earns his living, but as to how he lives."[6]

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[6] *Ibid.*

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TABLE NO. 1

Latin America: Estimated Demographic Data for July 1972

Country	*Total Population (In millions)*	*Annual Births per 1,000*	*Annual Deaths per 1,000*	*Percent of Population under 15 years of age*
Argentina	25.0	22	9	30
Barbados	0.3	21	8	36
Bolivia	4.9	44	19	42
Brazil	98.4	38	10	43
Chile	10.2	28	9	39
Colombia	22.9	44	11	47
Costa Rica	1.9	34	7	48
Dominican Republic	4.6	49	15	47
Ecuador	6.5	45	11	48
El Salvador	3.7	40	10	45
Guatemala	5.4	43	17	46
Haiti	5.5	44	20	38
Honduras	2.9	49	17	47
Jamaica	2.1	33	8	46

Mexico	54.3	43	10	46
Nicaragua	2.2	46	17	48
Panama	1.6	38	9	44
Paraguay	2.6	45	11	46
Peru	14.5	42	11	45
Trinidad & Tobago	1.1	23	7	42
Uruguay	3.0	21	9	28
Venezuela	11.5	41	8	47
Latin America	285	37	11	43

Source: Population Reference Bureau, Inc.

TABLE NO. 2

Latin America: Annual Growth Rates of Gross Domestic Product

(Percentages)

Country	*1961–70*	*1961–65*	*1966–70*	*1968–70*	*1968*	*1969*	*1970*
Argentina	4.2	4.4	4.1	5.8	4.6	7.9	4.8
Barbados	5.1	4.0	6.3	6.5	6.5	4.7	8.3
Bolivia	5.5	5.1	5.8	5.3	7.2	4.8	4.0
Brazil	6.0	4.5	7.5	9.3	9.4	9.0	9.4
Chile	4.3	5.0	3.6	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.5
Colombia	5.2	4.7	5.8	6.4	6.1	6.4	6.8
Costa Rica	5.9	4.9	6.9	6.8	5.8	8.8	5.7
Dominican Republic	3.6	1.0	6.4	5.4	3.1	7.0	6.3
Ecuador	4.5	3.7	5.4	6.0	4.0	5.3	8.7
El Salvador	5.9	6.9	5.1	4.2	3.2	3.5	6.0
Guatemala	5.2	5.3	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.6	5.1
Haiti	1.7	0.9	2.5	3.0	2.0	3.3	3.8
Honduras	5.1	4.7	5.6	4.6	7.0	3.1	3.8
Jamaica	4.1	4.7	3.5	3.6	6.1	4.5	0.4
Mexico	7.1	7.2	7.1	7.4	8.1	6.3	7.7
Nicaragua	7.3	10.2	4.4	4.1	1.5	5.7	5.1
Panama	8.1	8.2	7.9	7.9	7.0	8.4	8.2

Paraguay	4.7	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.7	4.3	6.1
Peru	4.8	6.4	3.3	2.1	0.5	1.2	6.7
Trinidad & Tobago	3.8	4.2	3.5	2.7	3.3	2.8	2.0
Uruguay	1.2	0.9	1.4	3.7	1.2	5.3	4.5
Venezuela	5.6	7.3	3.9	4.5	5.3	3.5	4.6
Latin America	5.5	5.3	5.8	6.6	6.5	6.6	6.8

Source: IDB, Based on Official Statistics of the Countries.

TABLE NO. 3

Latin America: Annual Growth Rates of Enrollment by Educational Level, 1960–1965–1970[1]

Period / *Level*	*1960–65*	*1965–70*	*1960–70*
First Level	5.8	4.3	5.0
Second Level	10.6	10.4	11.4
Third Level	9.7	11.1	9.7

[1] Data on 21 countries
Source: *América en Cifras*, OAS. Basic Studies, Department of Educational Affairs, OAS.

TABLE NO. 4

Latin America: Enrollment by Educational Level, 1960–1965–1970

(In Thousands)

Year / *Level*	*1960*	*1965*	*1970*
First Level[1]	24,781.9	32,828.0	40,526.8
Second Level[2]	3.643.5	6,023.1	9,899.8
Third Level[3]	527.2	833.5	1,412.7
Total	28,952.6	39,684.6	51,839.3

[1] Data on 22 countries
[2] Data on 21 countries
[3] Data on 19 countries
Source: *América en Cifras*, OAS. Basic Studies, Department of Educational Affairs, OAS.

TABLE NO. 5

Latin America: Percentage Distribution of Enrollment by Educational Level, 1955 1980

Year	*Total Enrollment*	*Pre-School*	*Elementary*	*Secondary*	*Higher*
1955	100	2.5	84.3	11.3	1.9
1960	100	2.6	84.1	11.5	1.8
1961	100	2.7	82.8	12.7	1.8
1965	100	2.6	80.5	14.8	2.1
1970	100	2.8	76.7	17.9	2.6
1975	100	2.9	73.7	20.2	3.2
1980	100	3.0	71.8	21.1	4.1

Source: Department of Educational Affairs, OAS.

TABLE NO. 6

Latin America: Annual Growth Rates of Teachers by Educational Level, 1960–1970

Period / *Level of Education*	*1960–65*	*1965–70*	*1960–70*
First Level[1]	7.0	4.3	5.6
Second Level[2]	10.9	8.4	9.2
Third Level[3]	9.8	5.9	7.9

[1] Data on 21 countries
[2] Data on 20 countries
[3] Data on 13 countries
Source: *América en Cifras*, Department of Statistics, OAS. Basic Studies, Department of Educational Affairs, OAS.

TABLE NO. 7

Latin American Institutions of Higher Education: Enrollment (Thousands) and Annual Growth Rates, 1955–1970

Country	*1955**	*1960*	*1965*	*1970*	*Growth Rates* 1955/60	1960/65	1965/70
Argentina	151.1	173.9	246.7	274.6	2.9	7.2	5.5
Barbados	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Bolivia	4.0	12.1	16.9	24.8 x	25.0	7.0	8.8
Brazil	73.6	96.7	158.1	430.5	5.6	10.3	36.0
Colombia	13.3	22.7	43.2	80.2 x	11.3	13.8	13.2
Costa Rica	2.5	4.7	7.2	15.3 x	13.5	8.9	16.5
Chile	17.0	24.7	42.9	60.8 x	7.8	11.7	7.3
Dominican Republic	3.0	3.4	6.9	21.8 x	2.6	15.9	17.9
Ecuador	5.9	9.4	15.4	38.2 x	9.8	10.4	20.0
El Salvador	1.4	2.4	3.4	4.8	11.4	7.2	7.2
Guatemala	3.0	5.3	8.6	13.6	12.0	10.2	9.7
Haiti	0.9	1.4	1.6	1.7	9.6	2.8	0.
Honduras	0.9	1.8	2.5	3.6	14.9	6.7	8.0
Mexico	79.0	87.6	133.4	204.7	2.1	8.8	8.9
Nicaragua	0.9	1.4	3.4	9.4	9.3	19.4	30.0
Panama	2.3	4.0	7.2	8.1	11.7	12.5	2.4

Paraguay	2.5	3.4	5.9	8.1	6.4	11.7	6.6
Peru	21.1	30.4	64.4	105.2 x	7.6	16.2	8.2
Trinidad & Tobago	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Uruguay	14.6	15.4	18.9	19.6 x	1.1	4.2	2.8
Venezuela	7.7	26.5	46.9	86.7	28.0	12.1	13.0
Total	404.7	527.2	833.5	1412.7	5.5	9.7	11.1

*"Development of Education in Latin America: Prospects for the Future". Ser. C/A.1.5.3. Appendix III, Washington, D.C. 1964.
x Estimates
Source: *América en Cifras*, 1970, OAS Statistical Yearbook, 1970, UNESCO.

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TABLE NO. 8

Latin American Institutions of Higher Education: Enrollment Compared to Total Population, 1955

Year	*Thousands of Students*	*Total Population*[2]	*Students per 1,000 Inhabitants*
1955	404	171,752[3]	2
1960	527	197,524[3]	3
1965	834	227,022[3]	4
1970	1,413	269,947	5
Projections	(1)	(4)	
1975	2,713	312,342	9
1980	4,548	361,398	13
1985	7,557	417,442	18
1990	11,180	480,976	23
1995	16,504	551,884	30
2000	24,225	629,863	38

[1] Latin American Workshop on "International Project for Financing Education," sponsored by the Center for Studies in Education and Development, Harvard University.
[2] CELADE, *Demographic Bulletin*, July 1971.
[3] Study on Educational Costs. Unpublished, OAS.

TABLE NO. 9

Latin American Institutions of Higher Education: Enrollment (Thousands), 1960–1965–1970

Country	1960		1965		1970	
	Total	*University*	*Total*	*University*	*Total*	*University*
Argentina	174	148	249	222	274	236
Bolivia	12	10	17	14	25	20
Brazil	—	—	158	156	—	—
Colombia	23	21	43	38	(1968) 72	59
Costa Rica	4	3.6	7	6	(1968) 11	9
Chile	25	25	43	40	—	—
Dominican Republic	3.4	3.4	6.9	6.9	—	—
Ecuador	9	9	15	14	—	—
El Salvador	2	2	3	3	4.8	4.3
Guatemala	5	5	8	8	12	12
Haiti	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.4	—	—
Honduras	1.8	1.4	2.5	2.1	(1968) 3.4	2.9
Mexico	—	—	—	—	18.8	13.3
Nicaragua	1.4	1.3	3.3	3.0	9.3	8.6
Panama	4.0	3.9	7.2	7.0	13.4	13.4
Paraguay	3.4	3.4	5.9	5.9	(1968) 6.9	6.9
Venezuela	26.5	2.4	46.8	44.0	87.0	82.0

Source: Department of Educational Affairs, OAS, Based on *América en Cifras: 1972* (In preparation).

TABLE NO. 10

Latin American Institutions of Higher Education: Enrollment (Thousands, by Public and Private Affiliation, 1960–1970

Country	Total 1960	Total–Latest Data Available		Enrollment in Public Institutions 1960	Enrollment in Public Institutions Latest Data	Percentage of Public Enrollment over Total 1960	Percentage of Public Enrollment over Total Latest Data
Argentina	173.0	(1970)	322.0	170.0	264.0	98	82
Barbados	——		——	——	——	—	—
Bolivia	12.0		25.6	11.9	24.8	99	97
Brazil (1962)	110.0	(1966)	182.0	66.0	100.0	60	55
Colombia	23.0	(1968)	63.0	13.0	34.0	57	54
Costa Rica	4.7		11.0	4.7	11.0	100	100
Chile	25.0	(1963)	31.0	15.0	19.0	60	61
Dominican Republic	3.4	(1969)	9.9	3.4	7.6	100	71
Ecuador	9.0	(1966)	16.0	8.6	13.0	96	81
El Salvador	2.4	(1970)	4.8	2.4	3.5	100	73
Guatemala	5.0	(1968)	11.9	5.0	9.7	100	82
Haiti	1.4	(1963)	1.9	1.3	1.5	92	94
Honduras	1.8	(1968)	3.4	1.6	3.2	88	94
Mexico	78.0	(1970)	188.0	69.0	161.0	88	86
Nicaragua	1.4	(1970)	9.4	1.4	5.7	100	51

Panama	4.0	(1970)	13.4	4.0	12.8	100	96
Paraguay	3.4	(1968)	6.9	3.4	5.3	100	77
Peru	—	(1970)	110.0	—	86.0	—	78
Trinidad & Tobago	—		—	—	—	—	—
Uruguay	—		—	—	—	—	—
Venezuela	26.5	(1970)	87.0	24.3	74.0	91.0	85.0
Latin America						89	77

Source: *América en Cifras: 1972* (In preparation), OAS.

TABLE NO. 11

Latin American Institutions of Higher Education: Enrollment by Fields of Study in Eighteen Countries, 1960–1965–1970

Fields of Study[1]	*Students (Thousands)*			*Percentage Distribution*			*Index Year 1960 = 100*		
	1960	*1965*	*1970*	*1960*	*1965*	*1970*	*1960*	*1965*	*1970*
Humanities	51.6	91.4	118.7	9.8	11.0	13.4	100	177	365
Education	35.5	74.9	190.3	6.7	9.0	13.4	100	210	526
Fine Arts[2]	32.4	34.5	72.7	6.1	4.1	5.1	100	106	224
Social Sciences	70.5	154.4	264.0[3]	13.4	18.5	18.6	100	219	374
Physical and Natural Sciences	16.9	31.4	54.4[3]	3.2	3.7	3.8	100	185	321
Engineering	75.9	111.9	206.6	14.4	13.4	14.7	100	147	272
Medical Sciences	107.4	137.4	185.4	20.5	16.5	13.2	100	127	172
Agriculture	13.8	30.9	54.8	2.6	3.9	3.9	100	223	297
Law	88.7	119.5	184.1	16.8	14.3	13.1	100	134	207
Basic Studies and Others	34.5	47.2	11.7	6.5	5.6	0.8	100	—	—
Total	527.2	833.5	1,412.7	100	100	100	100	158	267

[1] Classification of UNESCO
[2] Includes Architecture
[3] 1969 Data

Source: *América en Cifras: 1972* (In preparation), OAS.

TABLE NO. 12

Latin America: Projection of Growth Rates of Government Educational Expenditures by Level of Education, 1975–2000

Period	*Elementary*	*Secondary*	*Higher*	*Total*
1975–80	5.3	10.4	10.9	8.4
1980–85	5.2	10.4	10.7	8.6
1985–90	5.1	3.9	8.2	5.7
1990–95	3.4	3.8	8.1	5.2
1995–2000	2.3	3.3	8.0	4.9
Overall Period	4.2	6.3	9.2	6.5

Source: IDB, Based on Official Statistics from the Countries.

TABLE NO. 13

Latin America: Projection of Government Resources Needed to Finance Education at All Levels, 1975–2000

(In 1970 U.S. $ Million Dollars)

Year	*Elementary*	*Secondary*	*Higher*	*Total*
1975	3,190	2,145	1,695	7,030
1980	4,135	3,520	2,840	10,495
1985	5,330	5,775	4,725	15,830
1990	6,845	7,010	6,990	20,845
1995	8,070	8,435	10,315	26,820
2000	9,035	9,930	15,140	34,105
Cost per Student in U.S. $	82	135	625	115

Source: IDB, Based on Official Statistics from the Countries.

TABLE NO. 14

Latin American Government Expenditures by Educational Levels, 1970: Percentage Distribution

Country	*Elementary*[1]	*Secondary*	*Higher*
Argentina	41.0	34.2	24.8
Barbados	63.8	21.8	14.4
Bolivia	71.2	23.5	5.3
Brazil	43.5	28.2	28.3
Chile	42.6	27.0	30.4
Colombia	51.1	23.7	25.2
Costa Rica	61.1	27.5	11.4
Dominican Republic	72.3	17.3	10.4
Ecuador	49.4	37.5	13.1
El Salvador	70.2	11.1	18.7
Guatemala	66.2	17.8	16.0
Haiti	65.9	23.4	10.7
Honduras	72.6	21.3	6.1
Jamaica	57.7	35.6	6.7
Mexico	59.2	20.1	20.7
Nicaragua	68.1	20.7	11.2
Panama	55.4	27.8	16.8
Paraguay	58.1	21.8	20.1
Peru	48.4	28.7	22.9
Trinidad & Tobago	68.5	25.8	5.7
Uruguay	44.9	39.8	15.3
Venezuela	46.8	24.9	28.3
Latin America	51.7	27.2	21.1

[1] Includes pre-elementary education.
Source: IDB, Estimates based on UNESCO's *Statistical Yearbook: 1970*.

TABLE NO. 15

Latin America: Government Expenditures for Education as Percentage of the Gross Domestic Product, 1957–1960–1970

Country	*1957*[1]	*1960*[1]	*1970*[2]
Argentina	2.80	2.93	3.45
Bolivia	1.00	1.40	6.4
Brazil	1.40	1.60	3.2
Colombia	1.13	1.69	2.3
Costa Rica	3.10	3.95	6.4
Chile	2.13	2.30	5.7
Dominican Republic	1.58	1.41	3.2
Ecuador	1.24	1.57	4.0
El Salvador	2.38	2.68	3.6
Guatemala	1.70	1.90	2.0
Haiti	1.49	2.22	1.4
Honduras	1.01	1.88	3.2
Mexico	1.00	1.40	2.5
Nicaragua	1.50	1.77	2.6
Panama	3.54	3.30	4.6
Paraguay	1.44	1.74	2.1
Peru	2.15	2.87	4.3
Uruguay	—	—	3.7
Venezuela	0.86	2.25	4.5
Latin America	1.7	2.1	3.6

[1] "Development of Education in Latin-America: Prospects for the Future". OAS/Ser. C/VI.5.3., Appendix III.
[2] IDB, "International Project of Educational Financing".

TABLE NO. 16

Latin American Public Expenditures for Education in 1970: Percentage Distribution by Federal, State and Municipal Government

Country	*Federal Government*	*State Government*	*Municipal Government*
Argentina	65.0	35.0	0.0
Barbados	—	—	—
Bolivia	100.0	0.0	0.0
Brazil	25.6	63.8	10.6
Chile	100.0	0.0	0.0
Colombia*	56.3	39.8	3.9
Costa Rica	100.0	0.0	0.0
Dominican Republic	100.0	0.0	0.0
Ecuador	89.5	1.4	9.1
El Salvador	100.0	0.0	0.0
Guatemala	100.0	0.0	0.0
Haiti	—	—	—
Honduras	92.0	0.0	8.0
Jamaica	13.4	—	—
Mexico	81.3	17.1	1.6
Nicaragua	—	—	—
Panama	—	—	—
Paraguay	—	—	—
Peru	100.0	0.0	0.0
Trinidad & Tobago	—	—	—
Uruguay	100.0	0.0	0.0
Venezuela	84.7	15.3	0.0

*Data of 1966.
Source: Basic Studies, Department of Educational Affairs, OAS, Washington, D.C.

TABLE NO. 17

Latin America: Budgetary Expenditure for Education in 1970: Total; Percentage of GDP; Percentage of Government Total Expenditures; and Educational Expenditures Per Capita

Country	*Total (U.S. Million Dollars)*	*Percentage of GDP*	*Percentage of Government Total Expenditures*	*Educational Expenditures Per Capita (U.S. Dollars)*
Argentina	842.0	3.4	14.9 (1969)	36
Barbados	8.9	6.4	—	37
Bolivia	36.6	3.6	32.2 (1969)	7
Brazil	1,186.4	3.2	4.8 (1970)[2]	—
			16.9 (1968)[3]	13
			9.5 (1968)[4]	—
Chile	443.5	5.7	17.1 (1968)	50
Colombia	171.9	2.3	14.9 (1970)	8
Costa Rica	60.4	6.4	32.3 (1968)	35
Dominican Republic	45.8	3.2	15.8 (1970)	11
Ecuador[2]	64.1	4.0	17.7 (1970)	11
El Salvador	36.9	3.6	26.1 (1969)	11
Guatemala[2]	38.1	2.0	—	7
Haiti	6.4	1.4	11.7 (1970)	2
Honduras	22.4	3.2	21.0 (1970)	9

TABLE NO. 17 (Continued)

Country	Total (U.S. Million Dollars)	Percentage of GDP	Percentage of Government Total Expenditures	Educational Expenditures Per Capita (U.S. Dollars)
Jamaica	53.5	4.4	14.9 (1968)	29
Mexico	837.4	2.5	14.2 (1969)	17
Nicaragua	22.1	2.6	19.4 (1968)	12
Panama	48.1	4.6	26.8 (1970)	34
Paraguay	12.5	2.1	14.9 (1970)	5
Peru	258.4	4.3	22.5 (1966)	19
Trinidad & Tobago	29.5	3.5	—	29
Uruguay[1]	88.2	3.7	23.3 (1967)	31
Venezuela	473.8	4.5	16.8 (1970)[2]	—
			22.8 (1969)[3]	46
			6.3 (1969)[4]	—
Latin America	4,787.3	3.3	22.0	18

Source: BID, Estimates based on official statistics from the Countries, UNESCO, and the United Nations.
[1] Ministry of Education only
[2] National Government only
[3] State Government
[4] Municipal Government

TABLE NO. 18

Latin America: National Government Expenditure for Education, Raw in the Countries' Currency and Percentage of Total Government Budget, 1960, 1965, 1971

	1960		*1965*		*1971*		
Country and Currency	*Raw (millions)*	*Percentage*	*Raw (millions)*	*Percentage*	*Raw (millions)*		*Percentage*
Argentina* (peso nuevo)	11,003	8.7	60,145.3	15.2	(1971)	2,032	9.8
Barbados (East Caribbean dollar)	—	—	—	—	(1969–1970)	14	22.6
Bolivia (peso)	96.6	21.9	207	21.7	E	570	20.7
Brazil* (cruzeiro nuevo)	54.5	28.5	396.4	9.0	—	1,838	5.6
Colombia (peso)	191.4	8.7	782.2	16.9	[1]	2,412	14.8
Costa Rica (colon)	94.7	26.5	139.0	25.7	[1]	374	21.3
Chile (escudo)	119.1	13.2	592.3	14.8	E	5,020	10.8
Dominican Republic (peso)	10.2	6.9	—	—	E	54	20.5
Ecuador (sucre)	200.0	11.0	425.0	16.2	—	999	17.7
El Salvador (colon)	30.6	19.0	44.0	21.9	—	93	26.5
Guatemala (quetzal)	—	—	—	—	[2]	43	29.3
Haiti (gourde)	12.2	10.5	16.1	11.2	E	17	12.1

TABLE NO. 18 (Continued)

Country and Currency	1960 Raw (millions)	1960 Percentage	1965 Raw (millions)	1965 Percentage	1971	1971 Raw (millions	1971 Percentage
Honduras (lempira)	13.4	16.4	27.0	25.2	[1]	49	19.5
Jamaica (dollar of Jamaica)	—	—	24.8	16.1	[3]	59	23.4
Mexico* (peso)	1,945.2	12.8	4,074.7	14.2	[1]	8,500	16.3
Nicaragua (cordoba)	35.1	12.8	73.5	17.3	E	146	19.6
Panama (balboa)	14.6	22.9	23.7	29.5	—	55	25.3
Paraguay (guarani)	405	16.6	807.6	16.4	P	1,312	14.8
Peru (sol)	1,443.2	26.0	4,227.8	21.2	E	9,578	21.1
Trinidad & Tobago (dollar of Trinidad & Tobago)	—	—	—	—	E	56	12.5
Uruguay (peso)	42.0	2.9	2,844.0	26.5	[3]	3,136	23.3
Venezuela (bolivar)	807.1	34.3	1,142.3	40.7	E	1,788	17.4

[1] Budgeted value
[2] Includes Social Services
[3] Includes Social Welfare
E Estimate
P Provisional
Source: Department of Statistics, OAS, *América en Cifras, 1972* (in preparation).
*In these countries States and Municipalities have their own expenditures for education.

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